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DIFFERENCES IN WORK RELATED VALUES OF
MALE AND FEMALE OCCUPATIONAL THERAPISTS

PRESENTED FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF EDUCATION

1988

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DATED THIS 12th DAY OF APRIL, 1988

# DIFFERENCES IN WORK RELATED VALUES OF MALE AND FEMALE OCCUPATIONAL THERAPISTS

by

Elizabeth A. Taylor

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled Differences in Work Related Values of Male and Female Occupational Therapists submitted by Elizabeth A. Taylor in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Educational Psychology in Counseling Psychology.

Date..April/88.....

# DEDICATION

To my parents, Ted and Hazel Young, who have always taught me that no goal is impossible if you keep striving for excellence.

## ABSTRACT

A matched peer study using 55 male and 55 female respondents from a national survey of occupational therapists in Canada (N=1400) was completed in order to examine 1) the level of endorsement on the Value and Salience Scales of the Life Roles Inventory 2) the level of job satisfaction on the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire when controlling for educational level, position, marital status and area of residence.

This study compared male and female occupational therapists on employment-related variables. Results indicated that males endorsed the values of risk and advancement more strongly than their female cohorts, while females reported that social relationships were more important. Males viewed studying as more important than females in terms of participation, commitment and role value. No difference in the level of job satisfaction was found between the two groups.

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# CHAPTER I

# IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

## Introduction

In order to clearly understand this study, one definition must be initially stated, and it is as follows:

## Definition

Occupational therapy. As defined by the Canadian Association of Occupational Therapists (CAOT) is the art and science which utilizes the analysis and application of activities specifically related to occupational performance in the areas of self-care, productivity and leisure. Through assessment, interpretation, and intervention, occupational therapists address problems impeding functional or adaptive behaviour in persons whose occupational performance is impaired by illness or injury, emotional disorder, developmental disorder, social disadvantage, or the aging process. The purpose is to prevent disability; and to promote, maintain or restore occupational performance, health and spiritual well-being. Furthermore, occupational therapy services can be directed through health, educational and social services systems (CAOT 1983).

Occupational therapy, since its beginnings in Canada in 1917, has as a profession expanded into

diverse areas of practice in both hospital and community-based settings. As a result of this and other factors, the shortage of practitioners has been steadily increasing over the last ten years. The current job vacancy rate in Alberta of 17.5% is a prime example (Alberta Social Services and Community Health, 1986) of the situation across the country.

In an attempt to deal with the shortage of therapists and as a method of stabilizing the workforce, several authors have suggested that the profession make a concerted effort to attract more males into the ranks; indicating that a higher level of leadership and longer job tenure would result (Townsend and Mitchell, 1982, Hirama, 1986). This opinion is not universally held and Madill (1987) suggested that males are more likely to view allied health professions such as occupational therapy as a stepping stone to medical school.

No studies of male/female differences in occupational therapy could be found to support or refute either of these positions. What limited literature there is, comparing male/female cohorts, is only available from studies of medical and other allied health professions (Booth and Lantz 1977, Elliot and Gerard 1986, Over and Spencer and McDougall 1984, Weisman 1984, Kessler and Hellekson-Emery and Wilder

1982, Beil and Sisk and Miller 1980, Kutner and Brogon 1980, and Wallis, Gilder and Thaler 1983.) Findings from these studies suggest that significant value differences exist between males and female members of these occupational groups. Therefore this study was an attempt to determine whether similar differences existed among members of the occupational therapy workforce.

In order to measure values and salience across the primary life roles, Super (Canadian Work Importance Study 1980) and associates developed the Life Roles Inventory. The inventory was given a major field trial in Canada which involved occupational therapists in the province of Alberta (Madill, Brintnell, Stewin, Fitzsimmons and MacNab 1985). In 1984 the Canadian norming study was undertaken which also included a large sample of occupational therapists (Madill 1985). The inventory has been shown to be useful in evaluating the level of value endorsement in this occupational group.

The data for this study comes from a much larger study completed by Madill in 1985. In her study of Canadian occupational therapists, there were 1400 respondents of which 55 were male. The original study based on female therapists was completed to develop a foundation for a career pattern study in occupational

therapy and ultimately "to provide some empirical data which may facilitate the formulation of a career development theory for women" (p 130). Results from her study indicated support for Super's (1981a) theory on the multidimensional model of work salience. The working role was seen as central in terms of participation, commitment, and role value, but the home/family role was of primary importance. The values shared by the group were consistent across age groups and position levels. Madill also suggested that values of these females may well be consistent in other females in traditional women's occupations such as nursing, teaching, social work, physical and speech therapies. She also found that occupational therapists are not highly satisfied with their career choice, but that intrinsic satisfaction was higher than extrinsic satisfaction.

Overview of the Study

One hundred and ten occupational therapists, members of the Canadian Association of Occupational Therapists, participated in this study. The sample was initially matched as closely as possible in descending order for position, educational level, years since graduation, marital status and area of residence. Each therapist in the sample had completed two scales, the Life Roles Inventory (LRI) to determine their level of

endorsement on the values and salience scales of the LRI and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) to determine their level of job satisfaction.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine whether differences exist between male and female occupational therapists in Canada in the areas of values, salience and job satisfaction. The results of this study should increase the awareness of those recruiting both students and employees in terms of the values, salience levels and areas of job satisfaction which could lead to creating more stability in the field. Therefore, the study's purpose was to determine if there were any differences between male and female cohorts in terms of their:

1. levels of value endorsement
2. salience scale scores (participation, commitment and role values)
3. level of job satisfaction

Delimitations of the Study

Certain issues need to be considered regarding this project. As this study is based on data from 1985, it does not necessarily reflect the current number of practicing males within occupational therapy. It is however certainly close (Alberta Experience 1986-87) to the current number. Therefore the

information should be applicable to the present employment situation.

As well, the study represents only those occupational therapists residing in Canada. Those trained in different cultures or holding other ideologies may be different if values, salience and job satisfaction scores were compared in the same way. The present study does not attempt to address those issues involving those therapists.

Another limitation is the lack of career pattern data because one does not have access to information regarding career choice or progress through a career in relation to job satisfaction.

# CHAPTER II

# REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

## Introduction

As background to this study, the review is limited to five major areas of importance: Super's theoretical position, values and vocational choice, male/female differences in work values in the allied health professions, and finally, job satisfaction. As this study will focus on occupational therapists, and no literature concerning male/female differences in this occupational group could be located, this review only includes information that is available from other allied health professions.

## Super's Theoretical Position

Super's theoretical position was developed along the precept of developmental theory. Super proposed that occupational choice is an attempt by the individual to implement and express the self concept and further suggested "that the particular behaviours an individual engages in to implement the self-concept vocationally are a function of the individual's stage of life development," (Osipow, 1983, p. 183). Therefore vocation is seen as a reflection of self concept, and consists of the responsibilities and commitments viewed by the individual as important during a particular life stage. The values that the individual holds are further reflected in the given

career choices according to that individual's life stage.

Super (1969) outlined the phases of the development of self concept as follows:

> 1. The formation process includes exploration of the self and environment, the differentiation of the self from others, identification with others who can serve as models, and the playing of those selected roles with more or less conscious evaluation of the result (reality testing).
> 2. The translation of self-concepts into occupational terms may take place through identification with an adult role model, experience in a role in which one has been cast, or learning that some of one's attributes should make one fit well into a certain occupation.
> 3. The implementation process involves action as in obtaining the specialized education or training needed for the preferred occupation or finding employment in it (p. 19).

Super (1986) refined his approach to the development of the self-concept further in twelve propositions:

> Proposition 1. People differ in their abilities, interests, and personalities.
>
> Proposition 2. They are each qualified, by virtue of these characteristics, for a number of occupations.
>
> Proposition 3. Each of these occupations requires a characteristic pattern of abilities, interests, and personality traits, with tolerances wide enough to allow both some variety of occupations for each individual and some variety in each occupation.
>
> Proposition 4. Vocational preferences and competencies, the situations in which people live and work, and hence their self-concepts change with time and experience, although self-concepts are generally fairly stable from late adolescence

until late maturity, making choice and adjustment a continuous process.

Proposition 5. This process of change may be summed up in a maxicycle or series of life stages characterized as those of growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance, and decline, and these stages may in turn be subdivided into (a) the fantasy, tentative, and realistic phases of the exploratory stage and (b) the trial and stable phases of the establishment stage. A recycling process takes place in the transition from one stage to the next involving minicycles of new growth, re-exploration, and reestablishment; recycling is also attempted each time an unstable or multiple-trial career is unstabilized.

Proposition 6. The nature of the career pattern (that is, the occupational level attained and the sequence, frequency, and duration of trial and stable jobs) is determined by the individual's parental socioeconomic level, mental ability, personality characteristics, and by the opportunities to which he or she is exposed.

Proposition 7. Development through the life stages can be guided, partly by facilitating the process of maturation of abilities and interests and partly by aiding in reality testing and in the development of self-concepts.

Proposition 8. The process of career development is essentially that of developing and implementing self-concepts; it is a synthesizing and compromise process in which the self-concept is a product of the interaction of inherited aptitudes, neural and endocrine makeup, opportunity to play various roles, and evaluations of the extent to which the results of role playing meet with the approval of superiors and fellows.

Proposition 9. The process of synthesis of or compromise between individual and social factors, between self-concept and reality, is one of role playing whether the role is played in fantasy, in the counseling interview, or in real life activities such as classes, clubs, part-time work, and entry jobs.

Proposition 10. Work satisfactions and life satisfactions depend upon the extent to which the

> individual finds adequate outlets for abilities, interests, personality traits, and values; they depend upon establishment in a type of work, a work situation, and a way of life in which he or she can play the kind of role that growth and exploratory experiences have led him or her to consider congenial and appropriate.
>
> Proposition 11. The degree of satisfaction people attain from work is proportionate to the degree to which they have been able to implement self-concepts.
>
> Proposition 12. Work and occupation provide a focus for personality organization for most men and many women, although for some persons this focus is peripheral, incidental, or even nonexistent and other foci such as leisure activities and homemaking are central (pp.37-38).

Super (1981a) also proposed that work is only one aspect or role for any given individual. He suggested that the individual contends with five major roles in everyday life including 1) studying, 2) working, 3) community, 4) home/family, and 5) leisure. In each role, the values may differ for the particular life tasks. Super (1981) further suggested that "a successful and satisfying career may be one in which a good balance is struck between roles" (p. 31). Using this premise, Super defined role salience as including factors such as commitment, participation, and knowledge in order to determine role importance..

In the literature, the development of the self concept has been linked to both biological and socialization processes, therefore male/female differences could be expected, particularly in that

part of social development that is influenced by role modelling (Biddle, 1979). In Super's model implementing the self concept in terms of vocational choice involves identification with others (Super 1957).

Super (1957) suggested "women's careers, career orientations, and career motivations differ from those of men and are likely to continue to differ....that women's role as childbearer makes her keystone of the home, and therefore gives homemaking a central place in her career," (p. 76). This premise has been supported in a recent study which suggested women, particularly those with children, tend to experience reduced work involvement (Walker and Tauslay and Oliver, 1982).

This position has been disputed by Burnett (1982) who reported from a small group of college women that they generally rejected traditional role values and placed equal or more importance on career development.

Super then defined "Role-Value Realization" (Super, 1981a, p. 33) which consists of the values each individual attempts to implement in order to fulfill his life roles. He included such concepts as social relations, creativity, economics, autonomy, and advancement on these values.

Super's theory of vocational choice, when summarized, suggests a direct relationship between the

values the individual holds in relation to their chosen roles. Therefore the literature pertaining to the role that values play in the process of vocational choice, has also been reviewed.

Values and Vocational Choice

Early authors such as Kluckholn (1954), Allport, Vernon and Lindzey (1960), Maslow (1959) and Margenau (1959) attempted to define the concept of value. This has been difficult for researchers particularly in reference to vocational choice.

Rokeach (1968) considered values to be the internalized part of one's personal make up with "a strong motivational component as well as a cognitive, affective and behavioral components...value is a determinant of attitudes as well as behavior" (p. 157). As a value is internalized it becomes part of a system by which the individual has "learned organization of rules for making choices and for resolving conflicts -- between two or more modes of behavior or between two or more end states of existence" (p. 161).

In 1969 Rescher suggested that values were part of man's endeavor to achieve life satisfaction. He concluded that "values, though no means totally unresponsive to environmental changes, are generally not highly sensitive to them" (p. 118). Osipow (1983) came to a similar conclusion although he allowed for

"some change over time" (p. 68). Values may be acquired and Rescher (1969) describes a process by which values may be attained or lost. This was supported in a study by Strange (1983) who suggested that values change over time and used as an example the changing values of women who traditionally focused on marriage as part of their career choice, but now focus on the career itself.

Super expanded the role of values into the area of work in his theoretical propositions. He suggested that expression of values as part of the individual's personality lead to work and life satisfactions (Super, 1986). This was supported in a study of physicians assistants by Ho (1980), in which the values by which new graduates made job decisions in their first job were examined. It was found that occupational values did not affect their work decisions, however the present work conditions affected their occupational values.

In a study by Chernoff (1984) Holland's assumption, similar to Super's, that people seek environments and occupations that are compatible with their values and role perceptions was further documented.

The definition of values has been made difficult by the nature of definition, classification and

measurement. Kalish and Collier (1981) supported the premise that values are an important component of work and suggested that the significance of such factors should be researched. An attempt has been made here to arrive at a definition of values in order to focus on the differences between male and female work values.

Male and Female Difference In Work Values

The current literature in this area relating to allied health professions is extremely limited and results tend to be polarized between two outcomes - one that there is no differences and the other that distinct differences have been recorded between the two groups.

Clerc (1984) studied 253 students in allied medical groups (medical technologists, occupational therapists, physical therapists, dietitians and X-ray technologists) using the BEM inventory. Using this inventory he found no significant differences between males and females in either traditional male or female occupations.

Pryn (1983), however suggested that male and female differences develop at an early age and that "the basic differences in patterns focus on the altruism and physical activity subscales. Females appeared more likely to associate helping others with personal achievement whereas males tended to see

helping people in terms of controlling and organizing them" (p. 33).

Suggestions have been made that differences between male and female work values are due to sexual stereotyping (Chernoff, 1975). This finding was supported by Shinar (1975) who found that college students tend to use traditional role definitions in order to maintain sexual stereotypes. Rynes, Rosen (1983) further suggested that the differences in values are in the male/female attitude toward risks and sacrifices associated with career advancement in their already stereotypic roles.

In a study by Walker, Tausky and Oliver (1982) they suggested that for five job values: intrinsic, extrinsic, resource adequacy, convenience and relations with co-workers, no basic differences existed between male and female cohorts. It was further suggested that "the only male-female value difference that appears to be enduring, concerns the convenience aspects of work, and...it was concluded that "working women with children experience reduced work involvement" (p. 17).

However, other studies suggest that specific differences between male and female values exist. Hales and Hartman (1978) found that sex differences exist in altruism, control, self-realization, money, task satisfaction, solitude and prestige. This view

has been supported by Buetell, Nicholas and Brenmer (1986) who used the P.J. Monhard scale and found significant differences between males and females in similar occupations in eighteen out of twenty-five values. Women tended to place higher in twelve values such as altruism, independence and accomplishment. Males were consistently higher in values such as risk taking and advancement. Traditionally, many of these differences are consistent with stereotypic male and female values in general.

In a study by Booth and Lantz (1977) on naval hospital corpsmen and dental technicians it was found "that men tended to have higher expectation scores than did women" (p. 1157). This study suggested that perceived values varied according to the type of specialty choice and ranged in difference fron none in technical specialties to significant in occupations which included ward duties.

Studies by Weisman (1984), Lorber et al (1983), and Zimy (1982), both found significant differences in the characteristics and values that went into medical specialty choices between males and females. Characteristics that were stereotypic were noted, for example women who tended to specialized in pediatrics.

In a study of licensed physical therapists (Browning, 1980), a relationship between values and job

responsibility was reported. Therapists who had more responsibility in administrative positions placed more value on leadership while those in direct patient care valued support. The values of conformity and benevolence were considered more important by those who were satisfied with their job.

Oliver (1980), in assessing certified medical technologists, found values in the areas of altruism, conformity and benevolence were considered important by satisfied technologists. Leadership was a value considered to be important by administrators in these professions, while those working directly with patients considered support and benevolence of more importance.

In summary, the literature suggests that there are male/female differences in the values that are related to vocational choice. Some roles appear to remain stereotyped by value of sexual orientation however this does not account for all value differences. There also appears to be a relationship between values and the level of job satisfaction, therefore the next task will be to examine the literature in the area of job satisfaction.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction has been associated with the ability to maintain individuals in a given occupation. As early as 1935 Hoppock recognized that the level of

an individual's occupation affected attitudes and those at the highest level in their occupations had the highest level of job satisfaction (Campbell and Klein 1975). Holland and Gottfredson (1981) suggested that "the evidence about adolescents and adults implies that person/job congruence and job satisfaction increase with age and that the majority of the population maintain stable work histories or careers" (p. 15). A study by Maxwell and Maxwell (1977) involving 836 occupational therapists in Canada suggested that the majority were generally satisfied with their position and their career was a major source of satisfaction in their lives.

Madill (1985) studied 1400 occupational therapists in Canada and suggested that "this sample... demonstrated a moderate level of general satisfaction with their career choice, and they are more satisfied with the intrinsic elements than the extrinsic elements of their jobs" (p. 10). Other findings from this study suggested that satisfaction tended to increase with the respondents age and level of responsibility.

In a study by Butter Carpenter, Kay and Simmons (1987) it was suggested that although "female health workers outnumbered males by three to one, they remain clustered in jobs and occupations lower in pay, less prestigious and less autonomous than those of their

female counterparts." (p. 133) An example used was occupational therapy, where although 93.2 percent were female, males still achieved jobs with more responsibility and had also increased income over their female counterparts.

In Canada, however, literature reviewed by Casserly and Cote (1980) found that men and women were similar in their evaluation of their work place. The level of job satisfaction was comparable for both sexes on issues such as challenge and salary. Men were less satisfied with supervisory features but appeared to be more satisfied with fringe benefits and promotional opportunity.

Summary

The literature in this area suggests that men and women have comparable perceptions of job satisfaction in any given occupation. Two studies of occupational therapists examined job satisfaction, but in both instances, results from the male and female respondents were not separated according to sex. Although studies suggest that there are male/female value differences, nowhere in the literature for occupational therapists has a comparison of the level of job satisfaction between males and females been reported.

# CHAPTER III

# METHOD

## Subjects

The subjects used in this study were occupational therapists (N=1400) who participated in a Canadian survey in 1984-85 (Madill, 1985). Fifty-five of the participants in this national study were male.

The Alberta experience suggests that male participants in the national study are representative of the population of males currently employed in the field. For example, at the University of Alberta, up to 1984/85, male applicants GPA's were considerably lower than those of female applicants, hence few were admitted. Frequently these students were unsuccessful applicants to other quota programs such as medicine, physical therapy. Since then, the accelerated BSc route has attracted more male applicants with higher academic standing so at the end of 1986/87, 9 out of 114 (9.89%) registered students were males. It should be noted that this is higher than the percentage of males in the profession in Canada which is approximately 5%. This situation may indicate a trend as males begin to view the increasing number of employment opportunities and prospects in the field as viable career options.

For the purpose of this study the fifty-five male subjects were matched with fifty-five female counterparts in order to compare their levels of value endorsement, salience and job satisfaction.

The sample was matched by characteristics in descending order of importance on the following variables: position, educational level, years since graduation, marital status and area of residence. When no match could be found, the subjects were equated as closely as possible on their level of responsibility (position) and educational levels.

The demographic data for the sample of occupational therapy participants (N=110) is presented in Table I.

Position was considered to be the most important variable determining the level of job values and level of satisfaction between the two groups. Position levels were well matched with 52.7% of the males and 51% of the females employed as staff therapists; 36.4% of both groups were managers while 5% of the males and 7% of the females were clinical supervisors. The proportion of the subjects in each of the position categories was representative of those currently in the field (personal contact CAOT, 1987).

# Table I

## Demographic Data

## Number and Percent of Male and Female Groups

| | Male (N=55) | Female (N=55) |
|---|---|---|
| Age Ranges | | |
| <25 years | 3 ( 5%) | 3 ( 5%) |
| 25-30 years | 23 (42%) | 25 (45.5%) |
| 31-44 years | 21 (38%) | 25 (45.5%) |
| 45-64 years | 8 (15%) | 2 ( 4%) |
| >65 years | - | - |
| Mean Age in Years | 34.23 | 32.42 |
| Range | 24.00-64.00 | 24.00-53.00 |
| Marital Status | | |
| Never Married | 10 (18%) | 14 (25%) |
| Now Married | 39 (71%) | 32 (58%) |
| No Longer Married | 6 (11%) | 9 (16%) |
| Educational Level | | |
| Diploma | 13 (23.6%) | 12 (22%) |
| Baccalaureate | 36 (65%) | 41 (74%) |
| Master's | 4 (7.3%) | 2 (4%) |
| Doctorate | - | - |
| Other (RN Cert. Lic.) | 1 (2%) | - |
| Missing Data | 1 (2%)) | - |
| Position Level | | |
| Staff Therapist | 29 (52.7%) | 28 (51%) |
| Clinical Supervisor/Service Leader | 3 (5%) | 4 (7%) |
| Managerial | 20 (36.4%) | 20 (36.4%) |
| Private Practice/Consultant | - | - |
| Faculty/Research | 1 (2%) | 1 (2%) |
| On Leave/Not Practicing | 1 (2%) | 1 (2%) |
| Other (Retired) | 1 (2%) | 1 (2%) |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Specialization | | |
| Physical Dysfunction | 20 (36.3%) | 28 (51%) |
| Geriatrics | 8 (15%) | 8 (15%) |
| Pediatrics | 4 (7.3%) | 5 (9%) |
| Mental Health | 14 (25.5%) | 11 (20%) |
| Administration | 5 (9%) | 3 (5%) |
| Education | 1 (2%) | - |
| Other (Includes Community and School-Based Practice) | 2 (4%) | - |
| Years Since Graduation | | |
| <5 years | 21 (38%) | 21 (38%) |
| 6-10 years | 20 (36.4%) | 20 (36.4%) |
| 11-15 years | 5 (9%) | 5 (9%) |
| 16-20 years | 4 (7%) | 4 (7%) |
| >21 years | 5 (9%) | 5 (9%) |
| Mean/Median Years of Practice | 8.6 / 7.0 | 8.6 / 7.0 |
| Total Family Income | | |
| <$10,000 | 4 (7%) | 2 (4%) |
| $10,000-$19,999 | 9 (17%) | 3 (5%) |
| $20,000-$29,999 | 17 (31%) | 20 (37%) |
| $30,000-$39,999 | 12 (22%) | 10 (19%) |
| $40,000-$49,999 | 5 (9%) | 7 (13%) |
| $50,000-$59,999 | 4 (7.3%) | 8 (15%) |
| $60,000-$69,999 | 1 (2%) | 1 (2%) |
| $70,000-$79,999 | - | - |
| $80,000-$95,000 | - | - |
| >$95,000 | - | - |
| Don't Know | 2 (4%) | 3 (5%) |
| Median | $20-29,999 | $30-39,999 |
| Employment Status | | |
| Employed | 54 (98%) | 47 (85%) |
| Homemaker | - | 6 (11%) |
| Other (Student, Unemployed) | 1 (2%) | 1 (2%) |
| Missing Data | - | 1 (2%) |

Note: When total percentages exceed 100.00, it is due to a rounding error.

Once position levels were matched, it was then felt that similar levels of education should be present. Trends indicated only slight differences exist between groups with 23.6% males and 22% females having diplomas, 65% males and 74% females with baccalaureate degrees as their highest qualification, while 7.3% males and only 4% of females had completed master's degrees.

The next match was done for years since graduation. This information was more important than chronological age because it should be more indicative of years of practice, a variable that is likely to influence the level of job satisfaction. The sample was well matched here with the mean number of years of practice being 8.6 for both. In comparing ages, there are more males in the 45-64 year range. The majority of the participants were married, 71% of the males and 58% of the females.

The number of male/female participants by regions are listed in Table II.

From Table II it was evident that the majority of the sample resided in Eastern Canada. Quebec and Ontario represented 60% of the male sample while 73% of the matched females came from that same region. This is consistent with overall employment patterns in the field.

## Table II

### Number of Eligible Participants by Region

| Participants | Male | % | Female | % |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Atlantic (New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, Nova Scotia, Newfoundland) | 7 | (13%) | 3 | ( 5%) |
| Quebec | 20 | (36.4%) | 19 | (35%) |
| Ontario | 13 | (23.6%) | 21 | (38%) |
| Western (Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Alberta, British Columbia) | 15 | (27%) | 12 | (22%) |
| TOTAL | 55 | (100%) | 55 | (100%) |

It should be noted that males in similar positions earn less money than females in this study. This may be accounted for by the observation that more male respondants were from the Atlantic Provinces where the pay scales were the lowest in Canada at the time the data was collected (personal contact CAOT, 1987).

Instruments

The data from the Life Roles Inventory (LRI) was used to determine the values most important to the participants.

The LRI is a self-administered vocationally related inventory which examines specific values, and a salience inventory which determines specific importance assigned to roles. (Casserly, 1982). It allows the researcher to study individual differences between male

and female values within a similar occupation. It does this by acknowledging that each individual has multiple roles which can be documented through the use of this inventory. Respondents answered on a four-point Likert-type scale the importance they attached to 100 statements. Each statement was assigned to one of 20 value scales (eg achievement, advancement, life style, prestige). Sample items for the LRI are included in Appendix A.

The second component of the LRI (Salience) focuses on the areas of study, work, community service, home/family and leisure. Questions from this area allow a number of responses which indicate the importance of each of these areas, time committed to them and finally the values the participant seeks in each area.

The final section of the LRI allows for demographic data to be collected on the individual respondents. The information includes items such as age, sex, marital, educational and employment status. This section provided the information from which the fifty-five males/fifty-five females were matched. This instrument was given a field trial in Canada in 1983, during which a percentage of the samples were occupational therapists. It was found that this instrument had coefficient alpha internal consistency

reliabilities computed for each value scale with reliability coefficients ranging from 0.72 to 0.86 with the median being 0.80. Internal consistency coefficients for participation range from 0.90 to 0.96, commitment 0.91 to 0.96, and for the role values (based on five items) 0.72 to 0.86. During the study by Madill (1985) during which the LRI was utilized, 1400 occupational therapists were documented with coefficient alpha internal consistency reliabilities similar to those reported in the study of 1983.

The second instrument for which the data for this study was compiled, was the short form of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ). This form comprised of 20 items rated on a five-point Likert scale and examines the subjects perceptions about their present or most current job. Items on this instrument include statements such as: 3. Activity: Being Able to keep busy all the time, and allow the respondent to answer on a four-point scale. ( Definitions of the twenty items are included in Appendix B.) The instrument has three scales: Intrinsic, Extrinsic and General Satisfaction. (Weiss, Davis, England & Lofquist, 1967). On original field trials, data collected using a heterogeneous sample of 1460 employed men yielded high reliability coefficients of 0.86 for the intrinsic scale, 0.80 for the extrinsic, and 0.90 for the general

satisfaction scale (with retest value after one year of 0.70 [Weiss et al., 1967]).

Therefore these two scales, the LRI and MSQ appear to be valid, reliable and therefore the information provided for this study was completed using the responses recorded on these instruments.

Design and Data Analysis

As the purpose of this study was to compare the results obtained between male/female participants using the LRI, discriminant Analysis was used to compare the responses of both groups. Krzonouski (1980) stated that this form of analysis can be generalized easily to mixtures of all types of variables. It is most suitable when used to see how the groups differ with respect to two or more variables, as well as increasing the ability to discriminate between two predetermined groups. (Mellits, Holden, Freeman, 1982).

The use of discriminate analysis also allowed the researcher to determine whether a chosen value on the LRI and MSQ appeared to be more strongly endorsed by one group or the other. Further, this type of analysis also took into account the fact that these are not discrete variables, for example. Achievement and Advancement share variance. During the analysis of this data, because of small sample size, a significance level of $p=\leq.05$ was chosen.

The position categories used for this study had been previously used (Madill 1985) who derived them from Maxwell and Maxwell's (1977) survey of occupational therapists in Canada. The categories were:

1) Staff Therapist/Senior Therapist
   -primary clinical service provision

2) Clinical supervisor/Section Leader
   -some administrative/leadership role, service provision a secondary function

3) Manager
   -administrative role is the primary function

4) Education/Research
   -primarily in an academic rather than a clinical setting

5) Private Practitioner/Consultant
   -primary service provision on self-employed basis

6) On Leave/Not Practicing
   -includes maternity and study leave

7) Retired

Four educational levels were used:

1) Diploma
   -three year university level program (discontinued in 1978)

2) Baccalaureate
   -four year university degree (basic educational level at present)

3) Master's
   -two year post baccalaureate, includes degrees in all allied fields

4) Doctorate
   -two years post master's, includes degrees in all allied fields

To address the major objectives for this study, three research questions were posed. These are outlined below in their order of importance.

Research Question 1

Can a linear combination of variables be isolated that discriminate between males and females in this sample using the Life Roles Inventory value scales?

The male/female sample was compared by discriminant analysis of the responses to the twenty values using Part 1 of the LRI instrument: Means and standard deviations were computed using Psychometric Canada's Life Roles Inventory scoring program (MacNab 1984). The level of importance for each group was determined by its relative position on the four-point scale previously described, and then results for the male/female samples were compared.

Research Question 2

Do differences exist between male and female occupational therapists responses on the salience scales of the Life Roles Inventory?

In this instance, the level of importance the male/female respondents attached to the five major life roles were analyzed using the salience section of the LRI. Here each salience scale (participation, commitment, and role value) was analyzed using Psychometric Canada's Life Roles Inventory scoring

program (MacNab, 1984) to provide both mean scores and their standard deviations. The two groups were then compared in order to determine the variance in their level of salience.

Research Question 3

How does the level of job satisfaction of male/female respondents differ when they are matched for position and educational level?

Here the level of job satisfaction was determined using the general satisfaction score from the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire. Intrinsic and Extrinsic scale scores were also computed and then compared between the male/female samples.

The level of satisfaction of each of the three scales (intrinsic, extrinsic and general) were determined by summing the weighted scores (each item being rated on a five-point scale) according to the procedure as given in the test manual. The three scales on the short form, with their items, minimum and maximum possible scores and their equivalent levels of satisfaction are given below in Table III. A T test was then done to compare possible differences between the male and female subjects.

# Table III

## Scoring Criteria for Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

| | Satisfaction Scales | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | General | Intrinsic | Extrinsic |
| Number of Items | 20 | 12 | 6 |
| Min-Max Scores | 20-100 | 12-60 | 6-30 |
| Five-Point Scale Equivalents | | | |
| 1 = very dissatisfied | 20 | 12 | 6 |
| 2 = dissatisfied | 40 | 24 | 12 |
| 3 = neither | 60 | 36 | 18 |
| 4 = satisfied | 80 | 48 | 24 |
| 5 = very satisfied | 100 | 60 | 30 |

# CHAPTER IV

# RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

## Results

In this study, the difference between the male/female level of value endorsement was examined through the use of a discriminant analysis. Any variation between the two groups where $p \geq .05$ is described as a "difference".

The results of this discriminant analysis are presented under each of three research questions.

## Research Question 1

Can a linear combination of variables be isolated that discriminate between males and females in this sample using the LRI value scales?

In Table IV, results of the values section of the Life Roles Inventory are presented. Significant differences occur between males and females in the areas of advancement, risk, and social relations. Males place greater importance on advancement and risk while for females, social relations was more important. On the advancement value, the mean for males is 3.0 while for the females it is 2.76. For the value of risk, the mean for males is 2.26 while females are at 1.80, and finally on the social relations, value males are at 3.19 while females are at

## Table IV

### Means, Standard Deviations and Univariant F Ratios Females versus Males Life Roles Inventory - Value Scales

| Value | Male (n=55) Mean | S.D. | Female (n=55) Mean | S.D. | F | Significance |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Ability Utilization | 3.53 | .37 | 3.47 | .43 | 0.86 | 0.36 |
| Achievement | 3.45 | .41 | 3.32 | .46 | 2.57 | 0.11 |
| Advancement | 3.03 | .64 | 2.76 | .69 | 4.67* | 0.03 |
| Aesthetics | 2.83 | .54 | 2.66 | .65 | 2.33 | 0.13 |
| Altruism | 3.30 | .55 | 3.35 | .52 | 0.18 | 0.67 |
| Authority | 2.96 | .58 | 2.83 | .61 | 1.31 | 0.26 |
| Autonomy | 3.36 | .47 | 3.41 | .43 | 0.35 | 0.55 |
| Creativity | 3.31 | .49 | 3.16 | .57 | 2.20 | 0.14 |
| Economics | 3.17 | .56 | 3.03 | .61 | 1.71 | 0.19 |
| Lifestyle | 2.98 | .50 | 3.08 | .56 | 0.86 | 0.36 |
| Personal Development | 3.61 | .32 | 3.65 | .34 | 0.52 | 0.47 |
| Physical Activity | 2.86 | .61 | 2.84 | .65 | 0.28 | 0.87 |
| Prestige | 3.11 | .61 | 3.12 | .65 | 0.21 | 0.96 |
| Risk | 2.26 | .64 | 1.80 | .59 | 15.49* | 0.00 |
| Social Interaction | 2.82 | .61 | 2.92 | .60 | 0.78 | 0.38 |
| Social Relationships | 3.19 | .55 | 3.43 | .50 | 5.93* | 0.02 |
| Variety | 2.91 | .68 | 2.81 | .57 | 0.79 | 0.38 |
| Working Conditions | 2.68 | .56 | 2.70 | .64 | 0.16 | 0.90 |
| Cultural I.D. | 2.45 | .60 | 2.46 | .59 | 0.13 | 0.91 |
| Physical Prowess | 1.76 | .55 | 1.59 | .53 | 2.83 | 0.10 |

* = $p<.05$

3.43. There are no other significant value differences on any other scale.

Research Question 2

Do differences exist between male and female occupational therapists responses on the salience scales of the Life Roles Inventory?

In Table V results of the work salience section of the Life Roles Inventory are presented. For this section, participation refers to what the respondent does or has done recently, the level of commitment suggests how the subject feels about a particular role, and role value indicates to what extent one seeks values in the five major roles. The only difference between the males and females in this area was in studying where the males were consistently higher that the females 2.66 compared to 2.48 studying in participation, 2.92 to 2.71 studying commitment and 2.78 over 2.47 in studying for role values. No significant differences or other roles such as working, community service, home/family and leisure were found.

Research Question 3

How does the level of job satisfaction of male/female respondents differ when they are matched for position and educational level?

The results of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Short Form) are outlined in Table VI. A mean score of 73.4 (S.D. 11.0) for the males and 74.5 (S.D. 7.9) for females indicates that both groups rate their level of satisfaction between neither satisfied or dissatisfied and satisfied (60-80).

On the intrinsic satisfaction scale, a mean for females of 48.6 and males of 47.4 indicate that they

Table V

Means, Standard Deviations and Univariable
F = ratios
Females versus Males
Life Roles Inventory - Salience Scales

| Value | Male (n=55) Mean | S.D. | Female (n=55) Mean | S.D. | F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| PARTICIPATION | | | | | |
| Studying | 2.66 | .68 | 2.48 | .71 | 2.01* |
| Working | 3.26 | .51 | 3.11 | .51 | 1.27 |
| Community Service | 2.04 | .75 | 1.85 | .73 | 1.87 |
| Home and Family | 2.59 | .76 | 2.49 | .60 | 0.60 |
| Leisure Activities | 2.71 | .66 | 2.65 | .56 | 0.29 |
| COMMITMENT | | | | | |
| Studying | 2.92 | .69 | 2.71 | .72 | 2.38* |
| Working | 3.40 | .55 | 3.49 | .45 | 0.88 |
| Community Service | 2.42 | .79 | 2.25 | .79 | 1.26 |
| Home and Family | 3.18 | .85 | 3.17 | .81 | 0.11 |
| Leisure Activities | 2.81 | .68 | 2.97 | .63 | 1.68 |
| ROLE VALUES | | | | | |
| Studying | 2.78 | .68 | 2.47 | .61 | 6.46* |
| Working | 3.25 | .50 | 3.20 | .40 | 0.28 |
| Community Service | 2.43 | .78 | 2.33 | .65 | 0.54 |
| Home and Family | 3.13 | .68 | 3.05 | .54 | 0.46 |
| Leisure Activities | 2.86 | .71 | 2.88 | .51 | 0.30 |

* = $p<.05$

rate these elements of their career choice between satisfied and very satisfied (48-60).

A mean score on females of 18.8 (S.D. 3.8) and 18.5 (S.D. 4.2) for males indicate that they rate these components between neither satisfied or dissatisfied and satisfied (18-24).

In summary, this sample of male and female occupational therapists (N=110) demonstrate a moderate

## Table VI

### Results of Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire Intrinsic, Extrinsic, and General Satisfaction Scales

| Variable | | Number of Cases | Mean | S.D. | S.E. | F Value | 2-Tail Probability |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Intrinsic Satisfaction | Males | 55 | 47.38 | 7.82 | 1.06 | 2.54 | 0.00 |
| | Females | 55 | 48.60 | 4.91 | 0.66 | | |
| Extrinsic Satisfaction | Males | 55 | 18.47 | 4.24 | 0.57 | 1.22 | 0.46 |
| | Females | 55 | 18.78 | 3.83 | 0.52 | | |
| General Satisfaction | Males | 55 | 73.44 | 11.36 | 1.53 | 2.05 | 0.01 |
| | Females | 55 | 74.56 | 7.93 | 1.07 | | |

| | | Pooled Variance Estimate | | | Separate Variance Estimate | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Variable | | | | | | | |
| | | T Value | Degrees of Freedom | 2-Tail Prob. | T Value | Degree of Freedom | 2-Tail Prob. |
| Intrinsic Satisfaction | Males Females | 0.98 | 108 | 0.33 | 0.98 | 90.80 | 0.33 NS |
| Extrinsic Satisfaction | Males Females | 0.40 | 108 | 0.69 | 0.40 | 106.93 | 0.69 NS |
| General Satisfaction | Males Females | 0.60 | 108 | 0.55 | 0.60 | 96.61 | 0.55 NS |

level of satisfaction with their career choice. Both males and females are more satisfied with the intrinsic elements than the extrinsic elements of their jobs. No significant difference was found between the two groups in their level of satisfaction on any scale.

Summary of Results

The results of this study were presented under each of the three research questions, followed by a brief summary. This section will now serve to give a general impression of the findings.

Values

In comparing the 55 males to their female cohorts, the major differences were in the areas of advancement and risk for males who rate those values more highly while females place more importance on the value of social relations.

Salience

In comparing salience scale scores between the two groups, males placed more importance on the role of studying than their female counterparts. No other significant differences were found.

Job Satisfaction

In this area, no significant differences were found between the two groups. Both the males and females appear to be more satisfied with the intrinsic

elements of their job while displaying a moderate level of satisfaction with their career choice.

# CHAPTER V

# CONCLUSION

The present study was completed in order to analyze the differences between the males and females currently practicing in occupational therapy. The purpose of this study was to challenge the assumption that more males will create stability and bring higher status to the profession. One of the findings indicated that these individuals would have the potential to place higher levels of involvement in management as important and may well select employment with this as paramount. This is similar to findings in a career pattern study which suggests males are more like female managers in other professions (Madill, 1985).

There have been opposing views regarding the stabilizing influence of increased males in a predominately female occupation in related allied professions. Towsend and Mitchell (1982) and Hirama (1986) suggested that a higher level of leadership and longer job tenure would result. For the present study, there were no articles of the male/female differences in occupational therapy to lend support or refute this perspective.

1. Value Differences

Findings from this study indicated that occupational therapists (both males and females) were overall a very homogeneous group in terms of the values they endorse. This is similar to the findings of Holland (1973), in a text by Osipow in 1983, who suggested that those with similar preferences and values will be seen in a similar environment in order to express themselves and their views. If this author had utilized Holland's theory, it would likely have been found that individuals with these values would have been highly rated on three personality traits, social artistic and investigative (Madill, 1985). This is different for Canadians from Holland's own work which would have described them as high in social, realistic and investigative. Only after discriminant analysis was completed were discrete differences noted between the two groups in this area (values and salience). Three areas demonstrated significant differences between the cohorts. Males endorse advancement and risk more highly than females. It was suggested that these values are more career oriented and appear to be more aligned to meeting the individual's own career needs. For the males in this study, there appears to be greater interest in personal advancement as opposed to advancement of a client,

group, program or unit. It should be noted that personal development has been found to be highly endorsed by LRI respondents who have post secondary education (Madill, et. al., 1986). Males also considered risk important and may view risk as the key to career advancement. Beutall and Brenner (1986) had similar findings and found "significant differences were consistent with stereotypical male and female value systems (e.g. advancement and risk taking for men and comfortable work environment and pleasant associates for women)" (p. 29). Similar findings were found by Taveggia and Ziemba (1978) who suggested that males tend to be more work oriented and thus view mobility opportunities differently than their female counterparts. Hirama (1986) also suggested that males may recognize traits that lead to more effective leadership.

Females in this study endorsed social relations more highly than males. This value appears to be more aligned to nurturance and caring (altruism, social interactions, social relationships). This is seen as a possible expression of the females greater interest in the collective group and is often evident in the way they describe their jobs using the client service activity as opposed to their position level. Achievement, advancement, authority, prestige and life

style are important to both males and females, however the basic difference is that the females do not appear to be risk takers. Pryn (1983) suggested "females appeared more likely to associate helping others with personal achievement whereas males tended to see helping people in terms of controlling and organizing them" (p. 233). Further, the females who endorse social relations so highly may be representative of those who value the nurturing maternal role, that of raising a family which tends to interrupt a career or give career importance secondary place in their lives. A study by Wolker, Tausky and Oliver (1982) suggested that "the presence of children in the homes of working women induces them to reevaluate the importance they attach to their jobs as a whole" (p. 33).

This profile of male/female values is consistent with the normative data on the Canadian study (1980) of 6382 individuals of which 1400 were occupational therapists. In this sample comprised of adults, of whom 57% were professionals, results were similar to the present study indicating females high in social relations and males in advancement and risk. (see Appendix C for data).

As more males enter the occupational therapy profession in Canada, there may well be a trend toward more males in management because they value risk and

advancement which are already endorsed by those who occupy managerial positions.

This suggests that many females who occupy management positions may well be there because of their numbers in the profession and not by virtue of their role value realization. Those males in management positions in occupational therapy appear more like female managers in other professions that view advancement and risk as important values (Madill et. al., 1986).

Research on therapists in the United States demonstrated a trend toward an increasing number of males in higher salaried leadership positions. This is consistent with all health care positions in that country (Butler, Carpenter, Kay, Simmons, 1987). In this study, the family incomes of males were reported as lower (Table I), which may be accounted for by the lower incomes in the demographic area where most resided at the time (CAOT personal communication, 1987) and also the fact that some males may have been the sole source of income at the time this study was done.

2. Salience Differences

In terms of salience, males endorse the studying role more highly than females. The other salience measures, working, community service, home/family and leisure show no significant difference. This may

indicate that males, being more interested in advancement, see the link between qualifications and career mobility. More importantly, if females see the link, they negate its importance. This would lead the researcher to question whether the importance of social relationships override personal advancement for females. These values appear to be at opposite ends of the continuum. Super (1981a) suggested the possibility that "a successful and satisfying career may be one in which a good balance is struck between roles". (p. 31) Women who deem social relationships as more significant may see their multi-role of wife and mother as being a priority and thus having a greater influence in their career than do their male counterparts.

It must also be suggested that males, who in this sample held a greater number of graduate degrees, (see Table II) operationalize their understanding. This demonstrates the fact that those male occupational therapists, are able to operationalize career patterns that more clearly resemble Super's (1978) description of the stable working career.

The difference between men and women in their values and salience also suggests that female occupational therapists will need to recognize the link to the studying role in order to retain their current levels of knowledge if they wish to retain or return to

their current positions in the field. Employers may also well recognize those values of advancement, risk and studying and utilize them when choosing candidates for management positions.

The salience role of studying may also be seen as an issue of interpretation. Males may view items such as inservices as studying, while females often associate these as components of a daily job. This was supported in a study by Wood and Madill (1985) who suggested that females see many course opportunities as part of their job rather than studying.

3. Job Satisfaction

When job satisfaction is considered, the findings from this study are similar to Super (1981a) who contended that work and life satisfaction are dependent on the individual's ability to find adequate outlets for their abilities, values, interests and personality characteristics. In this study (see Table V) there were no significant differences. It appears that both groups, regardless of their level of value and salience endorsement, have struck a good balance between their perceived job and its importance in their level of personal need satisfaction. This implies that both groups are able to express their individual value differences productively within the context of their jobs. Both groups demonstrated a moderate level of

general satisfaction with their career choice and were more satisfied with the intrinsic elements rather than the extrinsic. This suggests that therapists are able to meet their own personal needs regardless of their value differences, thus being satisfied with intrinsic elements, while the extrinsic environment, although less rewarding, may be tolerated because of the intrinsic satisfaction gained by the nature of the job.

Summary

In this study of male/female occupational therapists, differences were found in several areas. Males appear to endorse advancement and risk more than their female counterparts, while females see social relationship more as part of their career integration. Males also endorse the studying role more highly than their cohorts, thus may be seen the relationship between studying and career advancement. No difference was found in the level of job satisfaction which may indicate that each group finds their needs met in a similar manner in their respective careers.

Implications for Practice

A major application of the findings from this study would be in utilization of the identified differences for this sample in the selection of management candidates in occupational therapy. Those who value risk and advancement are likely to be a group

of dynamic individuals who in management roles may be more willing to implement changes as the profession continues to evolve. Employers could also use the data as part of the criteria used to identify those who will not only demonstrate leadership qualities, but those other individuals who endorse values (such as social relationships) that would best remain in staff positions which focus on client service. Also, appropriate role placements would tend to help retain therapists longer in both the work setting and within the profession.

Those same characteristics may well influence choice of candidates for training in the future as the profession continues to evolve. Those individuals for whom risk and advancement are important values may also be those who demonstrate the flexibility and ability to adapt to a changing profession as it moves into the less structured community setting. Where independence in the community is needed, those who will risk and strive to advance while also recognizing the need to endorse more continuing professional education may be those individuals who would best enter the profession as it continues to grow.

Implications for Counseling

The use of values and salience also has direct significance for the counseling profession. In

understanding how the individual functions, the underlying value system is an important component of how the individual functions. Research has suggested that although an individual's value system remains relatively stable over time, his beliefs and attitudes may change (Biddle, 1979; Rokeach, 1968). In using the LRI for studying the individual, it assists the counselor to understand the client's value system, as well as the salience endorsement of the various roles in his life. When a client comes for counseling, he usually presents difficulties in one or more areas of his life which are usually seen in the context of the roles he occupies. The areas of conflict can often be seen in terms of attitudes and beliefs, many of which can be changed in an attempt to assist the individual to become more functional in his daily life.

Albert Ellis's Rational Emotive Therapy provides a methodology for working with an individual's irrational beliefs by challenging them within a counseling situation.

According to the theory of RET, "emotional disturbance occurs when an individual commands, insists and dictates that he must have his wishes or desires satisfied. Thus, he demands that he succeed at important tasks and be approved by significant others, he insists that others treat him fairly and ethically,

and he commands that the universe be more pleasant and less rough than it often is" (Corsini, 1975, p. 181). The therapist would be able to help the client understand his values and roles, but through therapy, change the cognitive, emotive and behavioral contexts of them which interfere with the client's functional ability. Therefore, the LRI provides another tool in which to view the individual and to assist him make positive changes in his life.

Recommendations for Further Research

The information from this study has generated data which indicates the need to examine the characteristics of those males entering occupational therapy.

Studies which may be planned from this research are:

1. As the trend demonstrates more males entering the field, a further study of their values, salience and job satisfaction should be completed to determine if this group continues to be similar to those already in practice.
2. A similar study should be undertaken with samples gathered from allied health professions such as physical therapy, speech pathology, audiology, psychology and social work as examples.
3. A study of occupational therapy students using the LRI to determine if results are similar to this present

study and whether this information would be beneficial to the selection process. Currently, entrance is restricted by quota and this may provide additional information in the selection process.

4. Most respondents were from Ontario or the Atlantic provinces. In other research papers, differences between groups have been suggested; a recent Canadian study suggested differences in values even between Anglophones and Francophones (McCarrey, 1988). Additional information on work values and salience between males and females in other regions may help separate the myth from reality.

A study of male/female values in occupational therapy in Canada has been completed by this study. The basis for additional projects were developed, and these have been outlined above. The information obtained from this study is of particular importance to employees to assist retention of therapists practicing in the field.

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# APPENDIX A

## Sample Life Role Inventory Items

### Values

For each of the following statements, indicate how important it is to you:

1. little or no importance
2. some importance
3. important
4. very important

It is now or will be important for me to:

1. use all my skills and knowledge
2. obtain results which show that I have done well

### Participation (what you actually do or have done recently)

1. never or rarely
2. sometimes
3. often
4. always or almost always

A. I have spent or do spend time in:

1. studying
2. working
3. community service
4. home and family
5. leisure activities

F. I have been or am active in an organization that has to do with:

26. studying
27. working
28. community service
29. home and family
30. leisure activities

Commitment (how you feel about it)

Use the same scale of 1 to 4 to show how you feel about each of the activities in the Questions A to J:

1. little or none
2. some
3. quite a lot
4. a great deal

A. It is or will be important to me to be good in:

1. studying
2. working
3. community service
4. home and family
5. leisure activities

F. I am or will be proud to do well in:

26. studying
27. working
28. community service
29. home and family
30. leisure activities

Role Values Grid

In this section, you will be asked questions which may sound like those you have already answered. However, here your answers will show what values you seek in each of the five major life roles: studying, working, community service, home and family and leisure activities. What you value may often differ in each activity.

Please read each statement carefully and then use the following scale to show how much opportunity you see to find each value in each activity. Very occasionally, you may feel that a value does not apply to a particular activity. When this happens, fill in the circle "NA" or "Not Applicable".

1. little or none
2. some
3. quite a lot
4. a great deal

What opportunity do you see now or in the future to:

A. use all my skills and knowledge in:

1. studying
2. working
3. community service
4. home and family
5. leisure activities

H. have the following be part of my way of life:

36. studying
37. working
38. community service
39. home and family
40. leisure activities

## APPENDIX B

### Twenty Items of Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire

1. **ability utilization:** the chance to do something that makes us of my abilities
2. **achievement:** the feeling of accomplishment I get from the job
3. **activity:** being able to keep busy all the time
4. **advancement:** the chances for advancement on this job
5. **authority:** the chance to tell other people what to do
6. **company policies and practices:** the way the company policies are put into practice
7. **compensation:** my pay and the amount of work I do
8. **co-workers:** the way me co-workers get along with each other
9. **creativity:** the chance to try my own methods of doing the job
10. **independence:** the chance to work alone on the job
11. **moral values:** being able to do things that don't go against my conscience
12. **recognition:** the praise I get for doing a good job
13. **responsibility:** the freedom to use my own judgment
14. **security:** the way my job provides for steady employment
15. **social service:** the chance to do things for other people
16. **social status:** the chance to be "somebody" in the community
17. **supervision-human relations:** the way my boss handles his men

18. **supervision-technical:** the competence of my supervisor in making decisions

19. **variety:** the chance to do different things from time to time

20. **working conditions:** the working conditions

The short form MSQ is composed of the twenty items listed above. The directions for this form are identical to those for the long-form. The short-form MSQ consists of three scales: Intrinsic Satisfaction, Extrinsic Satisfaction, and General Satisfaction.

# APPENDIX C

## LRI Value Scale Means and Standard Deviations

## Adult French Males and Females

| Values | Male | | Female | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Mean | S.D. | Mean | S.D. |
| Ability Utilization | 16.95 | 2.21 | 17.25 | 2.04 |
| Achievement | 16.80 | 2.19 | 17.08 | 2.06 |
| Advancement | 16.04 | 2.79 | 16.09 | 2.67 |
| Aesthetics | 15.69 | 2.74 | 16.09 | 2.59 |
| Altruism | 15.14 | 2.78 | 15.63 | 2.71 |
| Authority | 13.17 | 3.30 | 12.28 | 3.36 |
| Autonomy | 15.62 | 2.87 | 18.19 | 2.76 |
| Creativity | 15.61 | 2.95 | 15.59 | 2.98 |
| Economics | 16.58 | 2.42 | 16.62 | 2.50 |
| Life Style | 14.76 | 2.59 | 14.94 | 2.38 |
| Personal Development | 17.68 | 1.95 | 18.25 | 1.82 |
| Physical Activity | 14.80 | 3.01 | 15.00 | 2.95 |
| Prestige | 14.98 | 2.87 | 15.50 | 2.82 |
| Risk | 11.09 | 3.53 | 10.77 | 3.38 |
| Social Interaction | 13.84 | 3.21 | 14.67 | 3.07 |
| Social Relations | 16.07 | 2.76 | 17.21 | 2.54 |
| Variety | 14.06 | 3.09 | 14.47 | 2.93 |
| Working Conditions | 14.54 | 3.18 | 15.87 | 3.05 |
| Cultural Identity | 12.90 | 3.09 | 13.54 | 3.00 |
| Physical Prowess | 8.30 | 3.19 | 7.74 | 2.84 |

# LRI Value Scale Means and Standard Deviations

## Adult English Males and Females

| Values | Male | | Female | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Mean | S.D. | Mean | S.D. |
| Ability Utilization | 16.69 | 2.27 | 17.17 | 2.10 |
| Achievement | 16.76 | 2.20 | 17.17 | 2.09 |
| Advancement | 15.08 | 3.19 | 14.44 | 3.32 |
| Aesthetics | 13.31 | 3.39 | 13.75 | 3.42 |
| Altruism | 14.95 | 3.09 | 16.49 | 2.80 |
| Authority | 14.61 | 2.87 | 14.51 | 2.86 |
| Autonomy | 15.79 | 2.50 | 16.37 | 2.39 |
| Creativity | 14.89 | 3.10 | 14.82 | 3.13 |
| Economics | 16.31 | 2.63 | 16.25 | 2.88 |
| Life Style | 14.09 | 2.72 | 14.45 | 2.60 |
| Personal Development | 17.13 | 2.12 | 18.02 | 1.80 |
| Physical Activity | 14.18 | 3.14 | 13.97 | 3.17 |
| Prestige | 15.34 | 2.89 | 15.79 | 2.78 |
| Risk | 10.34 | 3.40 | 9.47 | 3.14 |
| Social Interaction | 12.65 | 2.92 | 13.82 | 2.90 |
| Social Relations | 15.44 | 2.78 | 16.93 | 2.41 |
| Variety | 13.06 | 2.99 | 13.96 | 2.89 |
| Working Conditions | 13.75 | 3.26 | 14.91 | 3.14 |
| Cultural Identity | 12.76 | 3.14 | 13.48 | 3.24 |
| Physical Prowess | 9.49 | 3.50 | 8.51 | 3.01 |

Source: Technical Manual for the Life Roles Inventory Values and Salience

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